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ABSTRACT

In The Netherlands, school leaders are recruited from the ranks of teachers. More than half of the principals in primary and secondary schools are promoted from within the organization. A minority of schools have written policies or explicitly stated procedures for identifying and selecting principals. One-fourth of the newly appointed principals are appointed by closed or informal recruitment procedures. In most appointment procedures the roles of the selectors have not been prescribed in advance. Women are underrepresented in principalships. In primary education about 10 percent of principals are women, and in general secondary education, 2 percent. The professional development of those wishing to become school leaders is ad hoc as no formal certification is required. The mainstream of management programs for principalship are carried out in inservice programs (with non award-bearing certificates). Three programs are briefly described. The paper ends with a short description of the participative structure of Dutch schools. (Author)

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RECRUITMENT, SELECTION, AND TRAINING OF SCHOOL LEADERS IN THE NETHERLANDS

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ABSTRACT

This paper begins with a review of the procedures used in recruiting and selecting school leaders (principals and vice-principals). In the Netherlands school leaders are recruited from the ranks of teachers. More than half of the principals in primary and secondary schools are promoted from within the organization. A minority of schools have written policies or explicitly stated procedures for identifying and selecting principals. One-fourth of the newly appointed principals are appointed by closed or informal recruitment procedures. In most appointment procedures the roles of the selectors have not been prescribed in advance. Women are underrepresented in principalships. In primary education about 10% of the principals are women, in general secondary education 2%. The professional development of those wishing to become school leaders is ad hoc as no formal certification is required. The mainstream of management programmes for principalship are carried out in in-service programmes (with non award-bearing certificates). Three programmes are briefly described. The paper ends with a short description of the participative structure of Dutch schools.

1. RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION OF SCHOOL LEADERS

RECRUITMENT

To describe the procedures used in recruiting and selecting school leaders (principals and vice-principals) in the Netherlands, I will mainly rely on the results of a recently conducted survey of randomly-selected primary and secondary school leaders and members of appointment committees (Ruys & Mientjes, 1989).

In the Netherlands school leaders are recruited from the ranks of teachers. Nearly all school leaders are fully qualified teachers. The decision to move into principalship usually is made after the teacher is granted tenure. This finding suggests that people do not aspire to be schoolleaders before becoming teachers.

In the history of the school the appointment of a new principal is not a frequently occurring phenomenon. That is probably one of the reasons why many school boards have no explicitly formulated policy regarding the appointment of school leaders. Only 50% of the primary schools and 60% of the secondary schools have planned procedures for identifying and selecting principals. A minority of these schools have written policies or explicitly stated procedures.

In primary schools about 30% of the principals are appointed by closed or informal recruitment procedures, and 70% by open or formal recruitment procedures. In closed recruitment procedures no selection or appointment committees are involved. Internal candidates are asked by the school board to apply for the vacancy. Open recruitment procedures involve the screening of internal and external candidates by a selection committee. One-fourth of the newly appointed primary principals in open recruitment procedures is recruited from inside the school. In secondary education principals are generally selected by open or formal recruitment procedures. About 60% of the principals of secondary schools are promoted from within the organization. Active recruitment by asking the candidate to apply for the principalship occurs in 50% of the appointments. The candidates may be asked to apply by their predecessors, school board members, vice principals, or teachers. Most (vice-) principals in primary and secondary schools may be therefore qualified as 'insiders' or as 'placebound principals' (Hoy & Miskel, 1987). They work within a school until the highest position is achieved. They are adaptive teachers who change themselves to fit the office.

Vice-principals in primary and secondary schools are in most cases recruited from the pool of teachers within the school itself (cf. Van Kessel & Verijdt, 1985, Bos et al, 1987).

SELECTION

If in a particular school a vacancy for principalship exists the school board takes the initiative to appoint a selection or appointment committee. In this committee representatives are selected from the board of education, the management team, the teachers, and parents. In secondary and tertiary education students' representatives may also participate in the selection committee. In about one out of six appointments the expertise of an external adviser is used. The number of selectors may vary from 5 to 10. The chairperson is appointed by the board of education. In most selection committees women are underrepresented compared to the number of female teachers teaching at the school for which such a committee is appointed.

The selectors are not trained for their job, and in most appointment procedures the roles of each of the selectors have not been prescribed in advance, or are formulated in only very broad outlines. The selection does not take place on the grounds of explicit written statements on tasks and responsibilities. The selectors operate without a clear specification of the job to which they are appointing and use individual impressions of what they think is important. Often more weight is given to a currently 'felt' need of the local situation than to the candidate's generic managerial abilities.

At the beginning of the selection procedure the selectors agree upon the content of the job description or profile of the new principal, and on the text for the job advertisement.

The first public announcement of a principalship's vacancy is the advertisement. The advertisement is usually placed in selected national newspapers and periodicals of teachers' unions. It is assumed that anyone in the teaching profession seeking a principalship will read these papers and magazines for notification of vacancies. The advertisements have a special display rather than just one column advertisements to attract attention and to include details about the vacancy. Although the forms and types of information included vary considerably, it is usual to give some information about the school (size, identity, location, building characteristics), about the function, and some specific criteria regarding suitability for the post to be given (profile). Some advertisements say that written information about the school and a profile of the new principal can be supplied on request.

The most frequently mentioned criteria in the profiles for principals (ranked according to their reported frequencies) are:

- fulltime availability
- fit to the particular school organization
- employment record
- previous management qualities
- age

- experience in vice-principalship or middle management (e.g. head of department, head of year).

In the job advertisements for private schools a heavy emphasis is placed on the identity of the school or on the religious conviction of the candidate, and on the candidate's view of educational matters (Klok & Moll, 1988).

Letters of application must be sent to the appointing body within a few weeks (in most instances within two weeks). The next step is the screening of the letters of application.

The letters of application provides the initial data from which a first reduction of candidates is made. This initial sifting of all the applications is done by the appointment committee or by school governors.

On average 25 letters of applications (24 male and one female) are received for a secondary principalship's vacancy, and 11 letters of application (9 male and 2 female) for a secondary vice-principalship's vacancy. For primary schools these figures are unknown. In recent years the interest in principalship's vacancies is declining, especially in primary schools where the differences in teachers' and principals' salaries are very small compared to the task load and responsibility of the principalship.

In almost all cases the appointing body acknowledges the receipt of the letters of application for the principal's vacancy. For vice-principals' vacancies acknowledgement of receipt is sent in about 50% of the cases, probably because of the internal recruitment procedure.

The most frequent criteria in the initial sifting are: career track record, previous experience and education, motivation, age, and handwriting, spelling and style of the letter of application.

Selectors are rarely given any guidance in the interpretation of information that candidates choose to provide. Each selector evaluates candidates' statements subjectively, according to his or her own criteria. The characteristic held in common by most selectors in judging the open-endedness of letters of application, is a concern to find first evidence of why someone is not right for the job, and second to find evidence that the candidate might be suitable.

From the pool of letters of application a short listing is made on the basis of the qualifications of the applicants. These applicants are invited for an initial interview with the appointment committee. The number of candidates involved in this initial interview varies from 0 to 12 men and 0 to 5 women. The duration of this interview varies from 45 to 60 minutes. The five most important topics discussed during the initial interview (ranked according to their reported frequencies) are:

- job description criteria, motive of service, view of principalship

- instructional program expectations
- identity or religious foundation of the school
- job related knowledge/skills
- experience/performance quality to date
- further particulars (e.g. selection procedure, legal status of the new principal).

Appointment procedures for principals require in general two interviews (62% of the appointments), sometimes three interviews (15%), and in some instances more than four interviews (8%). For vice-principalships these figures are: one interview 51%, two interviews 37%, and three interviews 12%.

Based on the results of the initial interview a small number of candidates (two to five) are invited for a second interview with the appointment committee. The topics from the initial interview are discussed now in greater depth. In general, the second interview lasts longer than the initial interview. Most decisions are based on information collected through questions and verbal answers. In about one-fourth of the appointments references are taken up before or after the second or final interview. Often the references serve as the last source of positive or negative information. Infrequently used selection criteria are: school visits (8%), tests (10%), simulations (in 2% of the investigated appointments).

In most cases one candidate is nominated by the appointment committee for principalship. The final decision is made by the board of education, which in general appoints the nominated candidate. On average, the recruitment and selection process takes about four months. One out of five appointments is controversial. Rejected applicants may appeal to an arbitration board.

Based on the results of the study of Ruys & Mientjes (1989) a handbook on selecting school leaders will be prepared to make recommendations on how schools could improve their current practice of recruiting and selecting school leaders.

WOMEN CANDIDATES

Women encounter a variety of barriers that impede access to administrative positions (e.g. in selection committees the number of men surpasses the number of women). In primary and secondary education principalships are almost exclusively the province of men, women are underrepresented. In primary education 90% of the principals are men, and 10% women. In general secondary education these figures are respectively 98% and 2% (school year 1987-88).

To correct this imbalance women are explicitly asked in job advertisements to apply for principalships. Also training programs are designed to encourage and facilitate the entry of women into administration.

The municipality of Amsterdam, which is the board of education for schools in the district of Amsterdam, has recently adopted an assertive hiring policy to stop

the disproportionate number of women in principalships. In the selection process women receive positive discrimination. In a recent case the teachers of a particular school opposed to this procedure and asked the court of justice to condemn this policy, but the court judged that the municipality of Amsterdam was entitled to execute this procedure.

2. THE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF SCHOOL LEADERS

The professional development of those wishing to become school leaders is ad hoc as no formal certification is required. In a sample of 29 newly appointed principals in secondary schools, as described by Ruys & Mientjes (1989), 59% of the principals had not followed a management training, 85% were former vice-principals, 63% were former curriculum leaders, and 41% were former department chairs. All principals were teachers, 34% were recruited from the same school, and 66% from another school. Only 3% of the principals were women. In a representative sample of about 470 principals in secondary and vocational education, 40% of the principals were 50 years or older, 97% of the school leaders (principals and vice-principals) were former fully-qualified teachers; more than 50% of these school leaders in secondary schools, and about one-third of them in vocational education, came from primary schools. On average, about one-third of the school leaders had worked for a short period of time outside education. In secondary education 44% of the principal school leaders were recruited from outside, in vocational education 63%. Most principal school leaders indicated that the principalship was the final phase in their professional career (Van Kessel & Verijdt, 1985).

These figures reveal that there are two career patterns for teachers: first, by moving from one type of school to another type of school (e.g. from primary school to secondary school by acquiring new teaching qualifications); second, by moving within the same type of school from teacher to principal school leader (advancing up the 'ladder').

Becoming a principal school leader involves a process of socialization by which behaviours, values, beliefs and norms are channelled and kept in check by the influence of others. This process of socializing prospective school leaders within their future occupation is shaped by school boards, inspectors of school, preceding school leaders, teachers, and parents. A teacher seeking to move up and out of classroom must actively demonstrate willingness and aptitude for assuming greater responsibility by taking additional school-related but non-teaching assignments in order to increase his/her visibility among the teacher group at large (cf. Wolcott, 1973; Stego, Gielen, Glatter & Hord, 1987). Most school leaders showed their visibility and capability by moving to positions such as department chairs, dean of

students, grade-level leaders, curriculum-programme directors, vice-principalship (including substituting the principal in case of illness).

Although the principalship can be regarded as a final stage in a professional career in education, it seems fair to state that procedures for the identification, selection, and development of school leaders appear to be relatively unstructured and informal. I have already indicated the lack of specificity at the criteria-setting structured learning experiences for school leaders extending over a period of several years and including a differentiated development strategy is lacking. Such a system requires relevant development and training in the various stages of a principal's career: preparation, appointment, induction, in-service training, and transition to another post or retirement. At present, there is no legal regulation which requires formally required pre-service training or in-service training as a prerequisite to becoming a principal. The only prerequisites are: being a fully qualified teacher, having taught for a certain number of years (which may vary from candidate to candidate) and tenure. [1]

In small elementary schools the principal school leader is expected to continue teaching. In large primary schools the teaching load varies according to the size of the school. In secondary schools the principal is not required to teach, provided the school has more than about 300 students.

Formally required pre-service training programmes do not exist. Teacher training colleges have no room in their initial training programmes to prepare students for educational administration. School management is regarded as a specialized field that has to take place in in-service training. There is also no formal training after selection and immediately before appointment as principal school leader.

School leader development in the Netherlands takes place in the form of in-service training (see next paragraph). Participation is voluntary. There is serious doubt that, as a result of in-service training, principals learn how to be successful school managers and instructional leaders. Most programmes are of short duration, do not include follow-up activities and do not assess the impact on school leader performance.

School leader development during the principalship may contain such activities as appraisal, placement and replacement, promotion and demotion, retirement. Once in office, there is no formal evaluation of the performance of principals. The Dutch educational system has not yet developed a culture for teacher appraisal. Once appointed as a principal to a specific school, the person may stay in function to his or her retirement. Unless the principal is grossly incompetent, he or she is rarely

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1 Besides a certificate of competence, candidates must also produce a medical certificate to the effect that the candidate is not suffering from disease or disablement, and a certificate of good conduct.

dismissed. There is no special form of placement policy or planned learning activities for serving principals, such as job rotation, career pauses, sabbatical leaves, merit pay.

School principalships are ceiling or exit positions because there is only a low probability of moving to a higher position or better paid function in the educational system, namely, that of inspector of schools, school consultant, or a governmental function. With the exception of narrow ranges in salary gradations based on education and type of school, the teaching-profession provides relatively few formal career steps. One such step is the principalship.

3. TRAINING PROGRAMMES FOR SCHOOL LEADERS

At present, there is no legal regulation which requires specific programmes or a period of training as a prerequisite to becoming a school leader in the Netherlands. In 1984 the government published a policy document called 'More about Management' (Ministery of Education and Science, 1984). In this document the view is expressed that there is urgent need of greater expertise in the management and administration of schools. Developments in education and educational policy (like e.g. decreasing enrollments, cuts in financial support, new technological developments, reshuffling and reorganization, amalgamation, scaling-up of schools, decentralisation, and deregulation), have a considerable impact on educational leadership qualities. One of the means to ensure good and successful management and administration of schools is to concentrate efforts on the organization of in-service training provisions. In-service training in the Netherlands is a right and a duty at the same time, but not compulsory.

In the Netherlands the mainstream of management programmes for principalship are carried out in in-service programmes. These programmes are mostly under the jurisdiction of educational support institutes and teacher training colleges. In the past, universities did not offer programmes of study for principalship. In september 1989 a university based programme, also in the form of an in-service training, is offered to teachers wishing to become secondary school leaders (principals, vice-principals). In part, the in-service professional development emphasis is a function of: 1) the assumption that school leaders must have teaching experience before moving into school leader roles; 2) the absence of school leadership requirements; 3) school reform and reorganization, which created new organizational leadership demands; 4) government's policy for professionalization, deregulation, and increased school autonomy; 5) a sense of urgency to respond to societal demands for increased school efficiency and effectiveness (cf. Pohland, 1988 for the British situation). All in-service training programmes are non-award-bearing courses.

Because there is no formal requirement to secure internal or external programme approval for quality control, a variety of programmes exists with varying degrees of quality.

PRIMARY EDUCATION

For primary education in-service training provisions are offered by the National Pedagogical Centres (LPC) and by teacher training institutes in collaboration with the local or regonal school guidance centres (OBDs). The three national pedagogical centres (one for the Roman Catholic sector of the educational sytem, one for the Protestant sector, and one for the public and non-denominational private sector) work at the national level and serve primary and secondary schools, OBDs, and teacher training institutes. The OBDs give direct support to local primary schools.

From 1982 to 1985 the Catholic Pedagogical Centre (KPC) started a project for training of school leaders of the new basic or primary school (in 1985 pre-primary and primary schools were integrated). The objective of this project was 'to support school leaders in order to increase their knowledge, insight and skills (also process-oriented skills), thus enabling them to fulfill their task as leader and change agent in the new elementary school more properly' (Arts & Gankema, 1986) Theee levels of assistance were distinguished:

- Informative courses for teacher educators pertaining to curriculum content as well as school organization (relationships to school boards, school inspectorate, parents etc.). These courses were given in the form of four or five seminars, each of one to two hours' duration.
- Skill-improving courses for school leaders, teacher educators and school guidance personnel aimed at increasing skills of school leaders (e.g. exchange of information, decision-making, planned change, evaluation). These courses were given at several, separated days.
- Attitude-oriented workshops for school leaders aimed at the functioning of the school leaders themselves (e.g. leadership styles, conflict management, bad-news talk). These courses were structured as workshops in two residential conferences of three days.

To a large extent, the content, methods, and organizational form of a training workshop for school leaders were determined by the questions, wishes, and possibilities of the participants. They were discussed during the intake procedure. The workshops were followed by work monitoring and/or supervision activities with respect to implementation at the local school level (follow-up). Various teaching techniques were used: trial situations, games and simulations, discussions in small and large groups. The number of training days varied from three to five, according to the needs of each group.

In the years 1982-1985 these courses were attended by 985 school leaders. Satisfaction data indicated that the participating school leaders were very satisfied whit these courses. They reported that they would be able to implement the learned skills at their schools. Comparisons of scores on a self-report scale of trained versus untrained school leaders revealed that post-test score were higher than pre-test scores, which indicated that the school leaders expected a positive outcome of the training on their leadership behaviours (Arts & Gankema, 1986, 1987). However, hard empiral data on changes in actual leadership behaviours are lacking.

A wide variety of in-service programmes were also offered by teacher training institutes (basic courses for school managers and courses for women who aspire to leadership positions). These in-service programmes, and to a lesser extent the KPC-programme, was aimed more at remediation than instructional leadership training. Few programmes were based on an image of an effective instructional school leader. Rather, they were school or issue-specific, responding to perceived immediate needs for skills in dealing with locally important problems.

Recently the emphasis on general management training has changed into an emphasis on instructional leadership. Based on the research on educational effects and effective schools the concepts of 'school leadership' and 'instructional improvement' are linked together. Research during the past decade has produced evidence that the school principal has a significant impact on how effective the school is in terms of school improvement and student outcome. Effective instructional leadership involves that school leaders must be prepared to deal with: 1) teacher supervision and development, 2) teacher evaluation, 3) instructional management and support, 4) resource management, 5) quality control, 6) coordination, and 7) troubleshooting (Duke, 1987).

In 1988 the Dutch Government started a new project called 'educational management: in-service training for primary education'. This project is based on the assumption that educational management should be regarded as one of the means to higher educational quality and effectiveness of schooling. From August 1988 till August 1992 about 2000 school leaders from primary schools can take part in the in-service course 'Educational Management'. Each participant can be relieved from school for a maximum of 40 hours. The aim of this course is primarily the strengthening of educational or instructional leadership within primary schools. This means that the course will be concentrated on the expansion of insight and capabilities of school leaders in planning, co-ordinating, guiding, and coaching of school improvement processes.

In the school year 1987/1988 the three National Pedagogical Centres (LPC) have developed an in-service training package, and have organized pre-schooling training

programmes for course leaders, who will conduct these courses for primary schools from August 1988 (training for trainers). The responsibility for putting the in-service course into practice is given to teacher training institutes for primary education and local or regional schools guidance centres. These two institutions have the task to make arrangements within the region to obtain a maximum impact from this in-service activity.

Concentration in the in-service programme will be in areas of school improvement. 'To plan and act in schoolwork development are therefore the most important areas for the schoolleaders' attention. This attention also covers the care both at class/group-level, as well as at school-level including the involvement of parents, school board and environment' (LPC, 1988).

In the in-service programme, attention will be paid to five characteristics of effective educational leadership (quotation):

a. 'formulating an **educational school policy**; care for quality; and an organization, which are aimed at the contents and goals of education;
b. accepting responsibility for and the **coordination of the schooling**. Especially the clarification of the aims of the school and the educational aims of various groups will play a major part here;
c. supporting and **coaching teachers** in class and team (class consultation, feedback, problemsolving, stimulation, clarifying problems of the school situation etc.);
d. emphasizing **results of pupils**: schoolleaders emphasize within their team the importance of results in basic subjects as language/reading/mathematics and the importance of creative activities of pupils and care for an adequate system for the **registration** of the workresults of the children;
e. the creation of a **positive learning and working climate** (positive expectations towards children and teachers, schoolclimate aimed at tasks and communication)' (sic, LPC, 1988 pp. 2-3).

This project will be carefully evaluated. Short-term effects (the amount of learning; participants' reactions: how they felt about the in-service training; changes in attitudes), and long-term effects (changes in leadership behaviour; changes in school administration and organization) will be determined.

Although this project gives an extra stimulus to the strengthening of educational leadership within primary schools, critical remarks have already been made (quotation):

- 'The new attempt of schooling schoolleaders has been looked upon as too restricted. There is still no mention of broad intensive in-service training. Some teacher unions are pleading for the set up of an institute from which training, schooling and extra schooling will be taken care of internally and during the

total career of schoolmanagers.

- The external pressure on the schoolleaders limits the motivation to start new activities in the school.
- The facilities for taking part in the courses in educational management are insufficient to implement what one has learned and to put it into practice.
- Among many schoolleaders resistance exists to accepting the ideas of effective educational leadership and to take the responsibility for the teaching in their schools.
- Many schoolleaders lack the spare time and energy to take on educational leadership.
- A number of schoolleaders is insufficiently qualified to be able to influence the team. Several leaders have not followed any basic management course.
- The developed course materials suffice the demands of availability and usefulness. They have been tested in experimental courses. In practice, some teacher-trainers have difficulties in their new role of trainer/-courseleader instead of teacher of preservice students. Because of that the courses in educational management can fail or partly fail.
- The courseleaders themselves have to make a choice from the available materials and have to put together adequate programmes, but they have only limited experience with regards to educational management.
- The implementation of new knowledge and capabilities in courses of educational management depends strongly on a certain amount of factors, that are difficult to influence (connecting extra schooling and guidance, support of school boards, etc.)' (sic, LPC, 1988 pp. 1-2)

SECONDARY EDUCATION

For almost 15 years 'Interstudie Institute for School Organization and Educational Management' (Interstudie SO) has provided in-service training in the field of school management for secondary education, including adult education and higher vocational education. Interstudie SO started in 1976 with a course called 'refresher course for school leaders in secondary education'. In the year 1977/78 576 participants attended this course, which was given by six course leaders. The institute now consists of 18 full-time course leaders, 4 secretaries, and a director. In 1987-1988 the institute provided ten different courses for some 1400 participants from secondary and adult education. Interstudie SO also provides other services, such as management consultancy, research, supervision of procedures for recruiting and selecting new school leaders, organizing study days, literature searches, and advice to local authorities.

Staff members are purposely drawn from different field of experience (school

managers, school consultants, policy makers, personnel managers, information experts, management trainers, and management advisers) and from varying disciplines (educational science, business administration, economics, organization science, psychology, sociology, and information science). Staff members are grouped into small teams. Each of the teams is responsible for special training programmes (with the components: development, implementation and evaluation, plus the policy preparation for the programmes as a whole). Each of the teams is represented by the teamleader in the co-ordination group.

The structure of most of the programmes involves alternating locations between residential conferences in hotels and working meetings at participants' schools. The residential conferences provide screening from the outside world, so that a cultural island is created as a context for new learning. The working meetings at schools make for direct confrontation between learning and reality, between reflection and action. Alternating the spatial location, and hence the degree of social isolation, brings a certain rhythm to the learning conditions. Almost all programmes last from 10 to 13 days; in many cases an additional five days are added to this for private study, conducting interviews, and surveys, dossier research, etc. (Gielen, 1986).

Another characteristic of most programmes is that two or three members from the same school management team or the entire management team together are allowed to participate, not single individuals. 'This means that the reality content of the learning process, and the proximity to the real-life situation, are provided with a natural medium in which to grow. This creates the potential for intensive learning moments, not only during the programme, but also afterwards.' (Gielen, 1986)

Activities of Interstudie SO are highly valued by participants (school leaders). Quality and practical usefullness are central in evaluations. These evaluatios are based on self-reports. Hard empirical data on changes in leadership behaviour, school administration and school organization are (not yet) available.

In the school year 1987/88 Interstudie SO offered the following management courses:

1. Orientation course for female teachers / 'women, management and policy' (for female teachers interested in management functions in schools).
2. Starting course for head teachers (for head teachers for whom the 1987-1988 school year is their first full year in this function).
3. Starting course for deputy heads (for deputy heads for whom the 1987-1988 school year is their first full year in this function).
4. Basic course for school managers (for two or three members of a school leadership team).
5. Personal policy course (for two members of a school leadership team, at least

some members of which have taken part in the basic course).

6. Work discussions (for school leaders who already conduct or would like to conduct work discussions).
7. System refresher course for management teams (for complete school leadership team management teams, at least some members of which have taken part in the basic course).
8. Subject conferences (for members of staff or project teams who are engaged in setting up or elaborating a concrete change plan or project in their own school).
9. '10 Years a school leader' (for head teachers who have held their position for at least 10 years and wish to reflect on it).
10. School manager and computerization (for school leaders who wish to find out about the use of computers in their own work).
11. Schools and amalgamation (information for schools who are involved or are about to become involved in amalgamation and integration).

The following service were offered:

1. Management consultancy (for school leadership teams and the education authorities).
2. Recruitment and selection of school leaders (support with recruiting and selecting school leaders).
3. Miscellaneous (organizing conferences, directing evaluation sessions, activities for specific target groups: administrators, middle management, etc.). (Interstudie SO: Management Courses 1987-1988)

In-service training programmes on school management are also offered by teacher training colleges for secondary education. Basic courses are offered for school managers and for women who seek career advancement to positions such as principal or vice-principal.

Until 1989 the universities were not formally involved in the training of school leaders. In September 1989 the 'Dutch School for Educational Management' (NSO) was founded. Participants in the board of this school are the University of Amsterdam, the Free University of Amsterdam, the Catholic University of Nijmegen, the State University of Utrecht, and associations for school leaders and school boards for secondary education. School boards are interested because they value more and more management qualifications prior to appointments of school leaders.

The Dutch School for Educational Management offers a part-time course lasting two years for school leader positions in secondary education, vocational education, and adult education. The programme is open to candidates who aspire to school

leader functions, and who have at least five years of teaching experience. The course started in September 1989.

The programme involves lectures/workshops, seminars, consultations, and a practicum (field experience).

Concentration in lectures/workshops will be on topics like:
Organizational management of schools; leadership styles; decision making; policy making, marketing and public relations; instructional leadership; organizational models in education; organizational diagnoses; productivity and quality control; recruitment selection, and coaching of new personnel; teacher appraisal; teacher supervision and development; implementation of educational innovations; managing the curriculum; management and modular scheduling; organizational and administrative theory; management information systems; management and educational technology; personnel-policy; school law; school resources; finance and budgeting; planning techniques.

The seminars are concentrated on skill development and attitude development. Attention is given to topics such as communication, leadership, negotiation, conflict management, culture-building.

The consultations are aimed at a reflection on one's own position and functioning. Teaching methods are: simulations role-playing, intervision, feedback, log-book techniques.

The practicum as a post-course training activity involves a theoretical and a practical component. The activity takes place in real school settings.

Participants who successfully complete the course receive a non award-bearing certificate.

4. PARTICIPATIVE STRUCTURE OF DUTCH SCHOOLS

The Dutch educational system is highly compartmentalized. The freedom of confessional or belief organizations to found schools without opposition or restrictions from the authorities is legally secured. After 1917 the equality of public and private education has been acknowledged, and equal financial treatment of private schools and state schools has been realized. The Constitution explicitly names two areas in which the freedom of private schools must be respected: the choice of teaching aids and the appointment of teachers. To avoid an unlimited founding of schools an average number of pupils per school must be guaranteed. The Minister has the authority to grant exemption when the minimum standards regarding the number of pupils are not met. Since 1917 the interpretation of the concept of denomination has gradually been reduced to religions conviction. This implies that a particular teaching method or a particular didactic approach is not

recognized as a separate denomination (Koelman, 1987).

It is customary to distinguish four major denominations within Dutch education: public or state schools, Protestant-Christian schools, Roman-Catholic schools, and general private schools. One-third of the total number of students attend public schools, two-thirds attend private schools.

School governing boards are the competent authority for publicly and privately run schools. Governing boards of private schools can be described as governing boards of schools that are administrated by citizens in the form of an association or a foundation, as opposed to governing boards of public schools, which are in the hands of the municipal authorities. The municipal authorities also act as the local authority for all schools (publicly and privately run) in the area (viz. allocating funds to public and private schools to cover non-staff costs). In the education system there is no intermediate level between central government and the school governing boards.

Over 80% of all school governing boards for primary and secondary education are private. From a legal point of view, school governing boards are the supports of freedom of education as laid down in the constitution. In this sense they lay claim to the rights ensuing from freedom of education, whereas on the other hand they have to observe the legal obligations. After all, they guard the identity of the school(s).

School governing boards can be active in six (main) task areas: founding and maintaining, educational/organizational modelling, staff policy (to appoint or dismiss staff), student policy (to admit or expel students), external relations, and management. School governing boards can demand that staff and those applying for education (parents and students) endorse or at least respect the identity of the school. The administration of private schools is the work of volunteers. The average number of governors in school boards is ten (Van Esch, 1988). These governors may be appointed by foundations, associations or organizations (the local church-community, teachers' committees), parents' committees, and in secondary or tertiary education: societal or business groups, students' committees or by co-optation. In general, school board meetings are attended by the principal school leader.

'From the task interpretations that school governing boards hold as regards different task areas, it can be concluded that indeed one can speak of at least two spheres of influence, namely a controlling area and an educational area. Over twenty per cent of the time of school governing is spent at the educational area, whereas for the controlling area this percentage is more than sixty. And if school governing boards indeed act in a steering way, then they mainly do so in the controlling area and far less in the educational area. The interference with the educational policy is marginal and is mainly concerned with the basic assumptions.

Also the analysis of the division of influence of various organisational units on three clusters of subject (viz staff policy, educational/organizational modelling, and religious principles, SV) areas again confirms the central position of the school management. In the fields of educational/organisational matters, religious or ideological principles and matters of finance, equipment and personnel the school management and teaching staff are given a considerable influence' (Van Esch, 1988, p. 311).

Although principals have considerable influence on educational and organizational matters, they work under the authority of the school governing board. Formal stipulations regarding school leadership are laid down in various laws. The Primary Education Act stipulates the duties of the principal school leader (called 'director') as follows: 'Each school has a Director, with whom rests, under the responsibility of the competent authority, the educational, organizational and domestic leadership'. The Secondary Education Act defines the functions of the principal school leader very briefly and succinctly: 'The Director, under the responsibility of the competent authorities, is charged with: a) Providing the school with leadership; b) Teaching and carrying out a proportionate part of the teacher' duties (to the extent that the nature and size of the school warrant it).'

Since the introduction of the Education Participation Act in 1981 it has been compulsory for every school to have a Participation Council, on which the elected representatives of the staff, parents and (in secondary and tertiary education) students sit. The number of members depends on the size of the school. The Participation Council has co-decision-making and advisory powers.

Parents and students may also sit on the parents' council or pupils' council, which advises the parents' or students' representatives on the Participation Council, undertakes initiatives and co-ordinates parental or student activities. Parents can also provide help by running the school library, perform duties in the administrative or technical sector, assist teachers in their teaching tasks (viz. reading at primary schools), organizing parties and so on.

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